

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 1, 1878.

The Week.

THE Government is making praiseworthy efforts to circulate the Fathers' Dollar, and has been soliciting the banks to draw some of it, which the banks are doing. But it will not be a success until there is enough of it afloat to do the bulk of the business of the country with—that is, pay debts and settle balances. Mr. Halstead intimates, in reply to some recent remarks of ours, that he will not go to Europe, as we suggested, and wait for the silver trouble “to blow over,” and declares that the sluggishness of the Fathers' Dollar is due to the fact that there is no free coinage—that is, that people cannot bring in their silver and have as much coined as they please; in other words, that no arrangement was made for letting us down at once on a single standard. He said at one time that the great value of the dollar lay in the fact that its issue would stop the greenback agitation; but this agitation has never been so lively as since it was issued. He also said that the fall in the price of silver bullion was caused by our demonetizing it, although we had none of it in circulation; it has, however, fallen heavily since remonetization accompanied by circulation. In fact, it seems as if he must be getting near the bottom of his bag of peculiar arguments and opinions about silver, and as if he would have to go to Europe whether he pleases or no, like the beaver which, in defiance of the laws of his nature, climbed a tree to escape from a dog, on the plea of overwhelming necessity.

The Potter investigation seems to be over as far as Secretary Sherman is concerned, and he certainly has been convicted of nothing wrong in Louisiana. But we regret to say that the result is not what one could desire with regard to a gentleman occupying his position. He has again gone before the Committee, and now denies plumply ever having written the Anderson letter; but he did not venture to deny it until he had heard all the evidence about it and was satisfied it could not be produced; and a Republican Congressman, Sypher, swears he once saw it. The denial is of course better late than never, but it would have been more welcome in the beginning. He swears positively that he never met privately with any member or members of the Returning Board. The most important item in his evidence is a letter he wrote to Mr. Hayes from New Orleans in November, 1876, in which he says the evidence of intimidation in the bulldozed parishes “was so well made out on paper that no man can doubt as to the just exclusion of their vote.” The phrase “on paper” is important here, as the evidence was actually made up of protests filed mainly by the unspeakable rascals who have been testifying on the Democratic side for some weeks back before the Committee, and who were no better then than they are now, and supported by the affidavits of negro witnesses supplied by the Republican State Committee, and summoned and paid by Pitkin, the United States Marshal, in the absence of any counter testimony, he (Pitkin) having been forbidden, he says, by the Attorney-General to summon any witnesses on the Democratic side. It is worthy of note, too, that every one of these witnesses who has since been examined has recanted and sworn that his deposition was not read over to him.

We do not affirm that they swore falsely the first time, or that there was not probably a good deal of intimidation, but it makes one blush to hear an American prominent enough to be a Cabinet minister talking of the award of the Presidency through such performances as those at which Mr. Sherman assisted, and through which he himself was seeking an office, as a judicial proceeding. One is therefore not surprised to find that, after “observing them

carefully,” he “formed a high opinion of Governor Wells and General Anderson,” and “thought them thoroughly honest and conscientious,” knowing, as he must have known, that ten years before Wells had been removed from the governorship of the State as a scoundrel by General Sheridan, and that the private character of both of them was thoroughly bad in the estimation of respectable men of all parties among whom they lived, and that a Congressional committee had found them guilty of making improper returns on a previous occasion. The reply of Mr. Hayes to this epistle is very creditable, but it is the only thing in Mr. Sherman's testimony that is creditable. The passage in which he (the President) says, “Let Mr. Tilden have the place by violence, intimidation, and fraud, rather than undertake to prevent it by means which will not bear the strictest scrutiny,” would, however, have been read with much amusement by the two Chancellors. This is what statesmen of that school call “Sunday-school politics.”

The Potter sub-committee at New Orleans has taken the testimony of Major E. A. Burke on the subject of the negotiations which resulted in the recognition of Hampton and Nicholls by Mr. Hayes. It consists mainly of telegrams to and from Burke, explained by his narrative of the circumstances. His story brings out very strongly the fact, which we suppose no sensible person has ever doubted, that there was an understanding on the subject of the attitude of the new Administration towards Hampton and Nicholls before the count was finished. What is new in it is the evidence of a distinct bargain on the subject between representatives of Mr. Hayes, acting under his authority, on one side, and Mr. Burke on the other. It appears that Burke, feeling that no reliance could be placed in the Democratic party as a whole, they being interested solely in the Presidential question, went to work in February, 1877, to organize the filibusters into a working party for the purpose of obstructing the count, and in this way to force guarantees for the possession of Louisiana and South Carolina out of the new Administration. By encouraging them to resist the count he swelled their number from about forty to one hundred and sixteen, or enough to stop the count. This frightened the Republican leaders, and Mr. Sherman sent for Burke. The result of the negotiations which followed appears in a telegram from Messrs. Burke, Ellis, and Levy, representing the State of Louisiana, to Nicholls, dated March 1, 1877, from which the following is an extract: “We have the guarantees of Sherman, Dennison, Matthews, and Foster representing the views of Governor Hayes.” . . . “Copies exchanged, and satisfactory written assurances from Hayes that he is correctly represented by his friends here, Foster and Matthews, from whom we have written guarantees.”

Such was the result of the “Wormley Hotel Conference,” of which so much has been said; and there could not be clearer evidence of a bargain with regard to the disposition of the South Carolina and Louisiana cases. As soon as the guarantees were exchanged the filibustering was put a stop to and the count proceeded. As to the moral complexion of the proceeding there can be hardly room for much difference of opinion. The Presidential title had been settled by the action of the Electoral Commission, the two Houses having bound themselves to abide by its decision. The filibusters were therefore wholly without excuse in their attempt to stop the count. At the same time the misgovernment of Louisiana and South Carolina had reached a point at which, unless something was done, anarchy was sure to ensue. Under such circumstances the “bargain” was simply an engagement on the one side not to interfere further with the settlement by Congress of the Presidential dispute in the manner which had already been virtually agreed to; and on the other, in consideration of this, a promise that the United States troops should not be longer used to bolster up

the rotten Republican "machines" in Louisiana and South Carolina, after their continuance had been proved to be fraught with danger to the public peace, and their permanent existence shown to be impossible. If any "bargain" in politics is allowable, certainly this one was; but of course it is a capital handle now for the Republican malecontents who hate the Administration, and, like Mr. Conkling, look with scorn and loathing upon all understandings with political enemies.

Mr. Shellabarger has given the Potter Committee, which is now sitting in this city, a letter from Henry R. Smith, postmaster at Canton, Mississippi, referring to the Eliza Pinkston outrage. It is dated July 4, and states that the writer has had a long interview with Eliza and her present husband, Pritchard, in relation to the affidavit recently published recanting her testimony given before the Visiting Statesmen. They told him that on June 22 they went to Canton at the request of W. T. Mosby, on whose place they live; that on reaching Canton they were taken to the office of a Mr. Hoffman, where they met a Mr. Garrett, Justice of the Peace, and Hon. Mr. Zacharie, of New Orleans. Mr. Zacharie then proceeded to convince Eliza that it was on her shoulders that the crime of having put Hayes into the White House rested, yet that it was to Democrats she owed her daily bread, and that the Democrats were her friends if she did what she ought. Having thus "conciliated" her, he asked who killed her husband, on which she reiterated her original story and said the Democrats had killed him. Mr. Zacharie offered her money and talked to her for some time, and then told her he had written down what she said, and she swore to it without knowing what he had written. Mr. Smith read the affidavit in the *Herald* to Eliza, who at once declared that she had made no such statements to Mr. Zacharie; in this she was corroborated by her husband. This letter is apparently regarded by the Republicans as a vindication of Eliza's original story.

The "nullification" movement in South Carolina has made no further progress. The facts with regard to the killing of Ladd by the party of revenue officers, as stated by those who support the decision of Judge Kershaw, are that the officers made an attack on his house without warrant, expecting to find the outlaw Redmond concealed in it; that Ladd "snapped a cap" at them, and that he, being thus "disarmed," was immediately murdered in cold blood. As this may be supposed to be the best face that can be put upon the transaction, it must be said that when a man "disarms" himself by "snapping a cap" at an approaching officer, the latter, being presumably uninformed as to whether the gun or rifle is loaded or not, is allowed under the common law and the Constitution considerable liberty of action. The statute, too, on the subject of a transfer to the United States courts seems very plain. It provides (R. S. U. S., Sec. 643) that in case of the commencement of any civil or criminal proceeding in a State court against any revenue officer or person acting by authority of such officer, on account of any act done "under color of his office" or of any revenue law, the proceeding may be removed to the United States Circuit Court upon the petition of the defendant, and the case there be proceeded with like a cause originally commenced in that court. There can certainly be no doubt as to the intention of this act. The whole object of it is to prevent State courts from trying cases of this kind where the defence is the official character of the act that is made the foundation of the proceeding. Judge Kershaw refuses to transfer the case, on the ground that the offence against the revenue laws for which the officers were trying to make an arrest was simply a misdemeanor that did not justify killing the party under any circumstances, and, therefore, the killing could not have been done under color of office. But this, as we understand it, is the very question at issue; and it is very clear that, if Judge Kershaw is right, the statute is useless, for it amounts to saying that in all cases the question whether the act was done

under color of office, or whether color of office is a mere pretence, may be tried in a State court first, and that the United States court cannot enquire into the question which the statute directs it to enquire into until the State court has decided that it may.

Secretary Schurz's decision that the unsold lands granted to the Pacific Railroad Companies by the acts of 1862 and 1864 are open to pre-emption by actual settlers at \$1 25 per acre, to be paid to the companies, has led to discussions in the press involving the nature and scope of the land-grant mortgages executed by them. The language of the law is that the lands not "sold or otherwise disposed of" after the expiration of three years shall thus be open to pre-emption. The *Financial Chronicle* contends that the mortgages are a "disposition" of all of them within the meaning of the act, and must be satisfied before any other rights can intervene. There is some ambiguity here, undoubtedly, and the case is therefore one where contemporary history may be invoked to aid in the interpretation. Investigation will show that Congress intended to put some limitation upon the use and disposal of the lands as an offset to the money subsidy granted to the companies, since other companies embraced in the Pacific Railway legislation, to which no money subsidy was given, were not restricted by the pre-emption clause in the disposal of their lands. The presumption thus becomes strong that Congress intended that after a certain period named in the act these particular lands, or the unsold portion, should fall within the purview of the public-land system, except that the money received for them should be paid to the companies. It can hardly be doubted that Congress had the power to annex this condition to the grant, and if it had the power the condition was as much a part of the mortgages as though it had been written in them. The question, then, is whether the rights of settlers under the pre-emption laws can be defeated by a mortgage drawn with such a clause. Mr. Schurz holds that they cannot. Probably some litigation will grow out of the Secretary's ruling, and in fact the land commissioner of the Union Pacific has given warning to that effect; but the chances of a favorable decision will be very much on the side of the settlers, especially if any considerable bodies avail themselves of the opportunity now thrown open to them. A number of filings have been already made.

The reception of Kearney, the California agitator, in Boston by a crowd of workingmen, the careful reports of his speeches by the press, and the editorial comments on him by all the leading papers, form altogether a spectacle that must delight Thomas Carlyle, if he still pays attention to contemporary politics, for Kearney is probably the lowest type of demagogue that has yet appeared in history. All his predecessors of which there is any record have laid claim to some of the qualities which are supposed to distinguish the civilized man from the savage, but Kearney makes no pretence to anything which the reading, thinking, and remembering part of the human race has hitherto considered respectable. He simply does what the naked Bushman does—curses, calls names, and threatens death. Nevertheless, he has in one of the foremost communities of the modern world a considerable following, and is an object of interest, and even of deference, to most of our politicians. He is worth study because he is a kind of animal for which neither American politics nor manners have made as yet the slightest preparation, and because he is the first to assert a claim which has been long in the air—viz., the claim not simply of the poor man to rule the State, but of the brutal, ignorant, blaspheming ruffian to have his way with the frugal, industrious, prudent, and religious; and assuredly we have not seen the last of his kind. Let us add—and without any wish to raise a question of party politics—that the moral and religious people of the North, in using their influence and the force of the Federal authority to procure and maintain for several years the government of great civilized communities at the South by the grossly ignorant portion of the population, and to discredit the intelligent portion for political purposes, have been sowing the seed from

which the Kearneys spring. If Kearney makes the well-meaning believers in nose-counting as an efficient means of administering human affairs a little more thoughtful and cautious, he may yet prove a useful blackguard.

In London there was during the week a decline of $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. in British consols, the result of a firmer money market, and of the apprehension that the discount rate would further advance. The drain of gold from London to the Continent continues, and sterling exchange here is slowly but surely drifting to the point that will also bring gold to New York. As it is a critical time with the harvests in many parts of the country, the weather reports have been scanned with unusual attention by all classes. In the Northwestern States these reports have been made tributary to a mammoth speculation projected by capitalists having their headquarters in New York, Milwaukee, and Chicago, and having as a field of operations the markets for wheat and railroad stocks. The fact appears to be that the recent bad weather has somewhat damaged the crops in Minnesota, but that they will be much, if at all, less in bulk than last year is not believed. The rush for United States bonds continues, and another \$5,000,000 of 4 per cents. has been sold since we last wrote, and another \$5,000,000 of 5-20s called in. On Tuesday, the 30th, the first lot of 5-20s (\$5,000,000) called in for redemption became due; within the next ninety days \$40,000,000 of 5-20s will cease to bear interest. Silver was steady during the week at 52 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. to 52 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. per ounce in London. At the close the bullion value of the 412 $\frac{1}{2}$ -grain silver dollar was \$0.8894. The gold value of the U. S. legal-tender note for one dollar at the close was \$0.9950.

The Treaty of Berlin has been ratified by all the Powers except Turkey, whose ratification is, however, of little consequence. The Austrian troops will, by the time this is in the hands of our readers, have entered Bosnia and Herzegovina without conditions, all efforts of the Turks to procure a preliminary acknowledgment of the Sultan's title, or a limitation of the period of occupation, or a reservation of the property rights of the mosques, having failed. Everything has, however, been done to make it easy for the Turks to withdraw gracefully and avoid any armed collision; but General Philippovitch, who is to command the occupying force, intimates in his proclamation that he will make it unpleasant for any one who opposes him. By the end of the summer, therefore, these two fine provinces will have been restored to civilization, and over a million of people will sleep in security, which neither they nor their fathers for many generations have known. It was to France after all that Greece owed all that the Conference did for her. England would have passed her by with a vague recommendation to the Turks in the protocol only to deal handsomely with her; but Messrs. Waddington and Corti insisted on its being embodied in the Treaty, accompanied with an offer of mediation which Turkey, if need be, will have to accept, and by a suggestion, which is really a command, fixing the minimum of Turkish concessions, viz., that the new frontier be a line following the valley of the Salambria from Phteri on the Gulf of Salonica, and we presume including Larissa, and then westerly to the mouth of the Kalamas opposite Corfu, or altogether about half of Thessaly and Epirus, and carrying with it the Gulf of Volo.

In Asia, Batum is to be a Russian free port; but it seems likely that Russia will have to take it by force from the Lazis, the present Mussulman inhabitants, whose character appears to be about as good as that of the Circassians, but who bitterly hate Russia, and over whose unhappy fate the English Conservatives have been ready to weep. The hollow character of this sympathy was amusingly exhibited at the Conference, when Lord Salisbury, who was speaking eloquently in their behalf, was suddenly asked by Prince Bismarck what was the name of this remarkable people, and had to

look for it in his notes. The Prince seemed to enjoy the joke, and subsequently referred to them sardonically as "cette intéressante tribu." Ardahan and Kars also go to Russia, but Turkey retains Erzerum and Trebizond and the caravan route to Persia—a highway about which Lord Beaconsfield has displayed great anxiety. The Armenians, one of the most valuable and industrious of Eastern races, have made a strong appeal for autonomy, but, being peaceable and patient, have excited but little attention from the Ministry or their friends.

The Treaty is now, however, an old story, and public interest has been concentrated on the British convention with Turkey, by which Turkey cedes the island of Cyprus to Great Britain, to be held in a sort of trust as long as Russia keeps Kars and Ardahan and Batum, but to be restored (the plenipotentiaries must have smiled when inserting this clause) should Russia relinquish these places. England is to pay Turkey about \$550,000 per annum by way of rent for the island, and is to defend the Asiatic dominions of the Sultan against any future attack by force of arms, while the Sultan is to introduce necessary reforms to be agreed upon between the two Powers. The reasons for making the convention, as expounded by Lord Salisbury, are that the defeat and losses sustained by Turkey in the late war have destroyed the Ottoman prestige and prepared the Asiatic world for the dissolution of the empire; that in this state of things Russia would, unless measures were taken to prevent it, be looked on as the heir of Turkey, and there was consequently no alternative for England but to step in and proclaim that she was not going to suffer any further diminution of the Sultan's Asiatic dominions. As further expounded by Lord Beaconsfield at the dinner given him by the Carlton Club, the certainty that England will have to be met in case of another attack on Turkey will probably induce Russia to avoid or postpone it; and when she does make one, the English Ministry of the day will, instead of hesitating and delaying, have a plain duty before them. In the course of his speech he denounced Mr. Gladstone as "a sophistical rhetorician inebriated with the exuberance of his own verbosity and egotistical imagination." This is in return for Mr. Gladstone's characterization of the convention as "insane." It has already been discovered in the House of Commons, amid "much laughter," that Cyprus has no harbor or any accommodation as a naval station beyond "a good anchorage," and the cost of the occupation begins to interest the taxpayer.

The Liberal attack on the Government policy was formally opened by the Marquis of Hartington in the House of Commons on Monday in a long speech. Against the Treaty itself, as a reorganization of Turkey and an amelioration of the lot of the Christians, there is, of course, nothing to be said: it is in these respects all that the Liberals could desire; but Lord Hartington was able to make the telling point that this might have been accomplished without letting Turkey go to war—an argument which is a heavy blow against the judgment and capacity of the Cabinet. His objections to the convention with Turkey are substantially those which have been set forth in our own columns, and they are pretty sure to appear weightier as time goes on. But in the present debate the Government is, of course, sure of a majority, and a heavy one. The effect of the convention abroad is clearly bad. The impression produced in Germany seems to be that it opens up a new chapter in the Eastern Question, and that fresh trouble between England and Russia cannot be long deferred. In France even M. Gambetta, who was one of Lord Beaconsfield's admirers until the convention became known, is out of temper, and his paper joins with those of all other parties in pronouncing it a slight inflicted on France. The Republicans are, however, somewhat checked in their denunciations of it by the fact that the Monarchists are maintaining that if France were not a republic England would not have ventured on it.

THE GREENBACK PARTY AND ITS PLANS.

THE National Labor-Greenback party of New York have adopted a platform of principles declaring that all debts, public and private, should be paid with paper, and that the paper should not be paid with anything; that all acts of Congress providing for the payment or redemption of Government paper were passed, like the bill demonetizing the silver dollar, by stealth and fraud, and ought therefore to be immediately repealed; that the Government ought not to pay interest on its debts; that the national banks ought to be abolished; that the ownership of land ought to be limited; that the importation of articles and materials which can be produced in this country ought to be prohibited, and all other articles admitted free of duty (customs revenue being thus reduced to zero); that a graduated tax should be imposed upon incomes above \$1,000; that all salaries of public officers above that amount should be reduced one-half; and that all persons guilty of "trafficking in votes" should be disfranchised. This declaration goes as far beyond the Ohio platform of the same party as the Indiana Republicans are usually in advance of those of Massachusetts when treating of currency and finance. The Ohio Greenback-Laborers proposed to limit the paper issues of the Government to the demands of business or the employment of labor, and suggested that gold, silver, and greenbacks be made the equals of each other in value. The New York branch propose no limits whatever, and have no toleration for metallic money of any kind. "Absolute money" is the only medium of exchange they admit into their bedlam.

A platform so wild and incomprehensible furnishes no material for criticism. Those who believe in it are obviously beyond the reach of any argument which can be put in the form of words. It is a pity they could not be collected together in some island and given free scope for the exercise of their fancy. It would be desirable that they should have a few Butlers, Ewings, and Voorheeses to prey upon them and to be the objects of their vengeance after their experiment had been fully tried. But, since there is no way of expelling those who are seeking to get your property away from you through the forms of law, they must be fought where they show themselves, and with the weapon of their choice, which, it is now evident, is to be the ballot and not the torch or the musket. The violent demonstration of last summer is not to be repeated this year or the next. The election of 1880 will not be upon the issue of law and order against lawlessness and disorder—the issue of Caesarism against anarchy—as the faction who are pushing General Grant forward would have it. All the parties which enter into that contest will have a single eye to results to be achieved by outvoting their opponents, not by shooting them. What is wanted by the dangerous element of society is not a *mêlée* with barricades, but quiet and peaceable possession of the Government, with the right to manage the public treasury in their own way, and particularly the right to issue "absolute money" in any amount and for any purpose. Communists of this type cannot be held in check by military methods, and General Grant is one of the last persons of whom they would need to stand in any dread.

Whatever the differences of the Greenback-Laborers may be among themselves as to methods, they are united in one thing, and that is in an attempt to repeal the Resumption Act. The nearness of the time fixed for resumption, the decline of the gold premium to one-half of one per centum, and the continued course of the foreign trade favorable to the importation of gold have alarmed the whole soft-money fraternity, and set them groping for arguments for a resuspension of specie payments in the event that resumption is actually accomplished. Mr. Bland, of Missouri, in the current number of the *North American Review*, holds a joint discussion, or symposium, with Mr. H. V. Poor on financial questions—which we may characterize in passing as rancorous and puerile in the last degree on the part of both disputants. Mr. Bland points the way for an assault upon the Resumption Act after it goes into effect by arguing that, inasmuch as the legal-tender note bore upon its face no particular date for redemption, the Government was, therefore, not

bound to redeem it at any particular time, and, since it is not bound to any particular time, it may change its determination to redeem as often as it chooses. It follows, of course, that the Government may redeem certain notes and not redeem others, and that it may redeem notes for A and not redeem for B. The omission of the Government to print upon its notes the date of payment was, in contemplation of public law and morals, a wrongful act, and one which, if interpreted at the time of issue as a claim of the right to redeem *at no time* (which is the equivalent of Mr. Bland's present claim), would have destroyed the Government credit utterly and paralyzed the military arm beyond remedy.

After resumption we may look for various devices on the part of Mr. Bland and his allies to bring about a new suspension. The difficulties of achieving this while the course of foreign trade continues as at present will be considerable, and it may be expected that a large body of persons who have been doubtful of the Government's ability to resume, and therefore either actively or tacitly opposed to resumption, will become the friends and supporters of a sound currency whenever the experiment of resumption is found to be successful. Moreover, the Greenback men do not understand the problem they are working at well enough to join in some one decisive step to accomplish their purposes. They are divided in their councils, one faction desiring to abolish the national banks, another to pay off the bonds in greenbacks, a third to strip the Treasury of its gold by redeeming the 5-20s, a fourth to repeal the limitation on the coinage of silver, a fifth to embark in extensive public works to be paid for with new greenbacks. The last project may be counted the most dangerous of all, since it appeals to the cupidity of politicians and speculators in every Congressional district, and falls in with the cry for employment for the laboring classes. It is here that a stand must be made by everybody opposed to the introduction of chaos in government and society. So long as river and harbor improvements, canals and railways, and public buildings are paid for by the proceeds of taxation the harm done cannot be great or irreparable. But if resort is had to the printing-press in one instance to defray the cost of such works, any scheme which the wildest Communist may desire to realize will be, perhaps not easy of accomplishment, but within the range of possibility.

To abolish the national-bank currency would be a grave blunder, but would not necessarily bring on a resuspension of specie payments. If the Greenback party, and their imitators and sycophants in the other parties, should succeed in accomplishing it, there would inevitably be a return to the old system of banking and bank paper under State laws, to which the South appears to be already strongly inclined, and which the East would undoubtedly favor as a shelter against a new régime of irredeemable currency. The Pacific States would adhere to the exclusive gold currency which they have maintained all along, and thus the first thing achieved by the abolition of the existing banks would be to deprive the noteholder of the security which now protects him against total loss by bank failures and partial and daily loss through the discount on uncurrent funds. Notwithstanding this and other arguments which ought to appeal to the wayfaring man as readily as to the scholar and the financier, there is a strong probability that the first movement of the Greenback men after resumption will be a measure to abolish the national banks. An amendment to repeal the existing tax on State-bank circulation should be pinned to it at once, and then the whole should be rejected.

There is not much vitality left in the project to pay off the bonds in greenbacks. This had its day in 1868. When Mr. Pendleton was voted down in the New York Convention, and when Senator Morton and the present Secretary of the Treasury were brought back into the traces at the Chicago Convention of that year, the danger in that quarter was virtually at an end. Since then the Southern States have resumed their seats in Congress, and their influence has been, on the whole, conservative as regards the public debt. Notwithstanding the Syracuse declaration, there is no evidence that any considerable body of voters are in favor of attacking the public credit in that wholesale fashion. The move-

ment to abolish the limitation upon the coinage of silver is likewise in a languishing state, and is not even alluded to by Mr. Bland in his latest contribution to fiscal science. The same remark may be made of the plan to disburse all the Treasury gold in the redemption of 5-20 bonds. The projects of the Greenback party are heterogeneous, and are perhaps well enough described by General Butler in his last interview with a *Sun* reporter as consisting of a great variety of discontent. A state of general uneasiness is much more likely to result in a breaking up of old parties than in the formation of a new one having a settled and definite line of financial or other policy. Nevertheless, it may be assumed that all who are ranging themselves on the side of the National Greenback-Labor organization are bent upon mischief to the currency, and that if they succeed in holding the balance of power in the country at large they will exercise a very demoralizing influence upon the other parties, and especially upon the Democratic party. If the ultimate effect should be to draw all the friends of a sound currency and social order into one column, and send all the adversaries into another, leaving only the office-holders and expectants of the old parties "making it hot under the old flag," there would be nothing to regret in such a dispensation.

ENGLAND AND RUSSIA.

THOSE of the philo-Turkish papers in England which are not committed to admiration of Lord Beaconsfield, and particularly the *Pall Mall Gazette*, appear to appreciate the grim humor of Prince Bismarck's late conversation with the Berlin correspondent of the *London Times*, in which he declared that England had achieved a "magnificent success" at the Congress. From his point of view everything has turned out admirably. Turkey has undergone a first partition without a general war. Russia has more than succeeded in fulfilling the promises of the Emperor in his Moscow speech, not only without detriment to her friendly relations with Germany but with several weighty reasons for being grateful to Germany. Austria, too, has, without any unpleasantness or any appearance of coercion, been pushed down among the Slavs and made to take more distinctly than ever the position of a Slav power. Finally, England has been induced to abandon her opposition to the destruction of Turkey in Europe, and saddle herself with enormous responsibilities with regard to Turkey in Asia, not only without vexation but with an immense feeling of triumph. The German Chancellor is not a sympathetic man, and his humor is of the cynical sort; so we may imagine the gusts of merriment which must have shaken his frame over his evening pipe and beer after seeing the author of 'Tancred' go home in high feather, with Cyprus and Asiatic Turkey on his hands.

A part of the popularity of Lord Beaconsfield at home, and a large part, is undoubtedly due to his assertion of English influence in Continental affairs, which has been steadily waning ever since 1815, and would have declined more than it has done but for Lord Palmerston's habit of audacious interference. But Lord Palmerston, though ready enough with his pen, and though he earned the reputation of a pugnacious Minister of Foreign Affairs, managed to abstain very steadily from anything more formidable than despatch-writing, and while having much to say, and saying it, in every Continental trouble during his term of office, very dexterously avoided committing England to any course of action or saddling her with any responsibility if her advice was not heeded. If the despots did not mind him he let them run. So that, on the whole, he at best only retarded slightly the growth of the opinion that England was irrevocably committed to a policy of isolation. The Crimean war did nothing, or next to nothing, to dispel this idea, for it was an admitted failure, and the supineness with which England looked on at the crushing of Denmark and of France converted it into an axiom of Continental diplomacy.

A powerful section of English society has, however, always writhed under it, and there are probably few Englishmen who in their secret hearts do not think an aggressive and meddling foreign policy a

condition of English greatness. It was this feeling which made possible the creation of the Indian Empire, the attempt to subdue the American colonies, and the long struggle with Napoleon. It was quelled for forty years after 1815 by the frightful misery which the French war left behind it, the wonderful growth of manufactures and trade through the perfection of the steam-engine and the invention of the power-loom, and the quickening of the public conscience about the condition of the poor which assured peace brought with it. It has been slowly reviving under the influence of the prodigious accumulation of wealth produced by the successful industry of the last twenty-five years, and showed itself almost fatally in the fierce eagerness of the well-to-do classes to take the part of the South during the civil war in this country. Its growing strength, combined with the humiliation of the Geneva award, had much to do with leading to the overthrow of Gladstone, in spite of his extraordinary legislative contributions to the national well-being, which, perhaps, have had no equal in English history since the nine happy years of Pitt which preceded the French Revolution. It was held in check at the beginning of the troubles in Turkey solely by the Bulgarian massacres. But for these there can be little doubt that Turkey would not have been left to face Russia alone on the Danube, and Lord Beaconsfield would have been enabled to develop his Asiatic policy at an earlier period. It has now served to cover up the enormous blunders and inconsistencies of the negotiations with Russia, and actually to give an air of gains to the prodigious burdens which Great Britain has assumed. The joy caused by the news of the convention with Turkey was, however, largely the joy of escape from a great humiliation, and the English papers which most cordially approve of the Turkish protectorate and the acquisition of Cyprus, as necessities, show plainly the great anxiety about the future which the Beaconsfield *coup* has caused, and which will probably be deepened every day by reflection. The British public is, in fact, much in the position of the gentleman who has come home overjoyed at the great bargain he has made in door-knockers at an auction, and is now sitting down to consider in what way he will get his money out of them; and the prospect is not likely to brighten under the influence of sober examination.

The situation is this. A very great change has been made in the conditions of the national existence by an old man, who has won all his celebrity as a rhetorician and romance writer, and has never conceived or carried out any policy whatever either in foreign or domestic affairs, or ever shown any capacity for legislation, and who, even if he has thought out his Asiatic plan to its remote results, will certainly not live to execute it. This plan has at one stroke converted the vague fear which for thirty years has haunted the British imagination that Russia and England might some day or other come into collision at the Himalayas—a very far-off contingency at worst—into actual consciousness of collision along the frontier of Asiatic Turkey. Russia will, in fact, now be able to attack England within a few miles of the Caucasus, and draw there on all her resources and on those of India, instead of seeking her across a thousand miles of desert. This is not all, however, or the worst. The arrangement is such that Turkey will be able to play off one Power against the other, and will probably be ready to throw herself into the arms of Russia before she has endured the protectorate for five years; and the only way in which England can check hostility of this kind will be by the seizure of the Asiatic Empire and the assumption of its direct government.

The only supposition which can make this prospect seem less serious is the supposition that the Russian agreement to treat her present Asiatic frontier as final will stand indefinitely. The probability is, however, that it will stand as long as the Treaty of 1856, by which Russia surrendered Bessarabia and agreed to keep no navy in the Black Sea. Many English writers seem to take comfort in the thought that something will happen to Russia, that she will be broken up or her expansion stopped by some internal convulsion, so that she will really make no more impression on Asiatic Turkey. But no one who reads her history or examines her society with an impartial eye expects anything of the kind. Her growth

has been marked, it is true, by much conquest, but the conquests have been possible because behind the armies there has been a huge social organization, animated by common hopes and ideas, and possessing a prodigious power of expansion. It is this which has been pressing on Turkey for a hundred years, and which is now swallowing up Central Asia, and which, in spite of all its reverses and defeats, fills the imagination of Europe with a wonder not unmixed with dread. It can be met and checked by another social organization, but it cannot be repressed by a contingent of Hindu troops and a corps of British civil servants. That it could ever impinge on a country as remote and as densely peopled as India was highly improbable, but that it will eat its way into Asiatic Turkey, and that disputing its progress at Kars and Trebizond will be a serious and hopeless task, there is no sort of doubt.

Lastly, England is undertaking this great increase of present expense, and incurring this risk of enormous expense in future, on a declining trade and revenue, and with the loss of her commercial supremacy staring her in the face. For all the contingencies of her own national existence her wealth and resources might fairly be pronounced inexhaustible; but the government and defence of an Asiatic empire such as that she now has on her hands is something which nothing but some such marvellous addition to her powers as was made in the beginning of the present century by steam, can render prudent. That such an addition will be made no one, in these days of invention and discovery, will confidently deny; but the chances are against it. He would not be a bold prophet who should say that fifty years hence the historian will point to the convention with Turkey as the beginning of a process of exhaustion, in which the real sources of English greatness had been sacrificed in a vain attempt to realize the gaudy dreams of a novel-writer, who had climbed into power as a rhetorician through the intellectual degeneracy of a party which had ceased to have anything behind it but wealth.

MR. PARKMAN AND HIS CANADIAN CRITICS.

MR. PARKMAN'S more recent books have excited warm protest from a certain class of French Canadians, such ardent lovers of their country and their Church that they can bear nothing reflecting upon either. These books are a surprise to them, as their own writers have eliminated everything that might touch the sensibilities of Canadian patriotism or Canadian Catholicity. Thus an ideal picture has been created, and it is unpleasant to discover that its coloring is not always true. The *Revue Canadienne* first gave expression to the feeling which this discovery awakened in an article on the 'Old Régime in Canada,' written by an eminent and accomplished churchman, who does not question the facts of the book, but, like *Hamlet*, "thinks it not honesty that they should be so set down." He complains that "the author examines and judges everything from a point of view purely natural and human. The principles which form one of the essential elements of our history belong to an order of things which he does not admit. As to the reproach of superstition which he makes against us, we grant it readily; but it would be easy to prove that the intellectual level of Canada was not inferior to that of New England." In evidence of this he says: "Nothing can be more poor and scanty than the annals of New England compared with ours. Our ancestors took account of their social existence, observed events, and recorded them in writings of which nobody contests the value." Here is a double mistake. The materials of New England history are far more copious than those of Canadian history, and they nearly all proceed from the pens of New England writers, while the annals of the French colony, at least during the first century of its existence, were the almost exclusive work, not of "our ancestors," who wrote scarcely anything, but of priests and government officials sent from Old France. In further support of his position the critic says: "Mr. Parkman himself observes that the Jesuit College of Quebec was founded three years before that of Harvard." This is true; but Massachusetts was twenty-two years younger than Canada, and Harvard was founded and maintained by the New-Englanders themselves, while the Jesuit College, like other educational establishments in Canada, owed its existence and support to an association external to the colony. The colonists themselves had nothing to do with it.

According to his critic, Mr. Parkman, though naturally well disposed,

is perverted by new-fangled ideas of the nineteenth century. "Democracy," he says, "is for him the type of social perfection." Again, he charges him with a "recrudescence of fanaticism" in the cause of democracy and Puritanism, as against monarchy and Romanism. Mr. Parkman was never before suspected of fanaticism, either for democracy or for Puritanism. Again, after recounting the martial exploits of the Canadians against New England, he exclaims in triumph: "We have merited the cry of hatred which the American author launches against us by the mouth of his ancestors." This "cry of hatred" would sound like a joke if the writer were not too mortally in earnest to admit the faintest idea of one. The border settlers of New England bore no love to those who butchered their families by midnight; but these barbarous raids are now scarcely remembered, and the modern New-Englander no more thinks of hating French Canadians than of hating Welshmen. It is three to one that he hardly remembers their existence, unless he has been reminded of it by Mr. Parkman's books. At most he knows them only as an inoffensive people who come down to work in the factories, and he never dreams of connecting them or theirs with the scalping of his great-great-grandmother.

The critic credits Mr. Parkman with conscientious research and most of the literary virtues except Romanism, which he thinks essential to the writer of Canadian history. Here we must differ from him. Canadian history has not been truthfully written by ultramontane Catholics. In their view truth is of two kinds, mundane and ecclesiastical, and where the two interfere with each other, the latter must prevail. In the interest of the Church a great deal ought to be suppressed, and in this duty of suppression Mr. Parkman has failed. Yet, with all his intense feeling on this point, the critic is by nature too fair-minded not to make the following significant avowal:

"We have been accustomed to regard our past under an aspect too ideal, and answering more to our dreams than to reality. Too often, instead of writing history, we have written panegyrics. Mr. Parkman's books have at least this good in them, that they teach us to examine our annals with the eyes of cool reason."

He nevertheless complains that Mr. Parkman's realistic picture of Canada represents the country as if in the depths of a dreary winter, with its features bereft of every charm. He afterwards forgets this, and compares 'The Old Régime in Canada' to a Canadian landscape in all its wild primeval beauty. "The view," he says, "is charming, but let the traveller beware, for wild beasts lurk in the thickets, and the savage Iroquois lies ambushed behind the rock." "The book of Mr. Parkman," he concludes, "has something of the fascination and the danger of our primeval nature. The prudent reader had better not venture into it without a compass and a weapon." This compass and weapon, it is needless to say, are to be furnished by the Church.

The *Opinion Publique* follows with more criticism, and this time it is somewhat bitter. Mr. Parkman is first called to account for depreciating the Canadian people. The charge is not easy to sustain, as his statements are all drawn from French and Catholic writers whom the critic cannot impugn. In one instance, however, he thinks he has found a vulnerable point. Mr. Parkman is describing the rounds of the missionary priests among the remote settlements, and of these priests he pronounces what the critic himself calls a "magnifique éloge." His fault is not against them, but against their flock, and it lies in the following words, in which he describes the approach of the missionary to the infant settlement of St. Denis, consisting of two log-cabins belonging to poor peasants:

"Wild-looking women, with sunburnt faces and neglected hair, run from their work to meet the curé; a man or two follows with soberer steps and less exuberant zeal, while half-savage children, the *coureurs de bois* of the future, bareheaded, barefooted, and half-clad, come to wonder and stare."

In this the critic sees a malicious slander of the whole Canadian population. It is evident, however, that these two poor families and their log-cabins were chosen, instead of more prosperous settlements, as affording a better illustration of the dreariness and hardship of the missionary life, an object of which the critic can hardly complain. He nevertheless proceeds to describe a larger settlement, called La Boutellerie, four or five miles off, and shows that its chief man was a respectable officer, while one or two, at least, of its inhabitants knew how to write their names; which is nothing to the purpose, as Mr. Parkman is not describing La Boutellerie. Still, the question may fairly be asked, Is Mr. Parkman justified in the picture he gives of St. Denis? Now, the governor of the colony, speaking of one of the chief families of Canada, not peasants but nobles, says:

"Monsieur de Saint-Ours came to me to ask leave to go back to France in search of bread. His wife and he are in despair, and yet they do what they can. I have seen two of his girls reaping grain and holding the plough. Other families are in the same condition. They come to me with tears in their eyes. All our married officers are beggars."

At the same time the Intendant Champigny, speaking also of the upper class of the colonists, says: "It is pitiful to see their children, of which they have great numbers, passing all summer with nothing on them but a shirt, and their wives and daughters working in the fields." The Intendant Meules, speaking of the inhabitants at large, says that many of them go half-naked even in winter, and Bishop Saint-Vallier declares that many families are in such destitution that in winter their younger members can only keep warm by lying all day in bed. Such evidence might be multiplied, but this will serve to justify Mr. Parkman's account of the two poor families of St. Denis.

The quivering sensitiveness of our Canadian neighbors is hardly intelligible across the line, where most of us can hear our ancestors called to account without losing equanimity. The *Opinion Publique* retorts Mr. Parkman's alleged aspersion of the Canadian settlers by a commentary of some length on American slavery and Salem witchcraft. These indeed are a God-send to our friends of the North, who rarely fail to bring them to the front on all possible occasions. The critic congratulates himself that the blot of slavery was unknown in Canada. If he would look into the matter, he would find that in the eighteenth century there were about as many slaves, both black and red, in the French colony as climate and other circumstances would admit. It is true that witches were not hanged in Canada, but Indians enough were burned there to make ample amends.

The final accusation is of another sort. It is that Mr. Parkman has exposed the weaknesses of Bishop Saint-Vallier, while saying nothing of his wise regulations for the government of the clergy or of his gifts to the Church. In fact, Mr. Parkman has not said all that might be said either for or against him. He is not writing ecclesiastical history, and has to do with churchmen only so far as they were connected with the social and political life of the colony. He has not enlarged on the bishop's regulations for the government of his clergy or on his gifts to the Church, because, being matters purely ecclesiastical, they were outside his province. For the same reason he has not dwelt on the rancorous quarrels excited by Saint-Vallier in the bosom of the Church, nor on the fact that his ecclesiastical administration was thought so faulty that the extreme measure of removing him from his bishopric was seriously considered by the royal council.

The critic thinks that Mr. Parkman has undergone an unfavorable change of heart, and now regards the French colonists with positive dislike. Of this his books give no evidence. His fault is that he has told unpleasant truths and proved them. The earlier annals of Canada are full of heroism and devotion, and he has so reproduced them. Different elements mingle in her later history, and these he has also reproduced, as he was bound to do. Yet in doing so he has not failed to give praise wherever it is due.

A worthy Catholic lady, speaking of Mr. Parkman's 'Jesuits in North America,' declared that "all it says in favor of the fathers is true, and all it says against them is false." The Canadian writer seems to have borrowed a hint from this comprehensive rule of criticism. Yet he is never wilfully unfair, and even when most offended he seems not wholly to forget that if Mr. Parkman has exposed the faults of French Canada, he has also done something to make known her great and peculiar merits.

PARTY MACHINERY IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, July 6, 1878.

PERIODICAL writers and journalists in this country have been devoting a good deal of their attention lately to the problems of political and party organization. Politicians have begun to realize the fact that the enlarged constituencies are very different agencies from the small pocket-boroughs of the beginning of the century and from the restricted constituencies of the period between 1832 and 1867, and they are groping about for some satisfactory means of guiding and controlling these unmanageable machines. In the old time—the bad time of the Georges—electors were bought like sheep at a market, by the head or by the score, and the representatives whom these sheep elected were bought in Parliament by posts and pensions, sometimes even by hard cash. In the early years of the present reign the habit of bribery at elections still prevailed, and the money subscribed by the Carlton Club for the Tories and by the Reform Club for the Liberals was not always expended on legitimate

purposes. Party organization was managed by coarse means and unscrupulous agents. The enlarged constituencies, the ballot, and the transference of jurisdiction in election petitions from the House of Commons to the courts of justice, together with the increased penalties for bribery and corruption which have been enacted of late years, have tended to do away to a large extent with the grosser forms of bribery. When a man has to bribe a thousand electors instead of a hundred, and when he does not know whether those who have received his bribes have voted for him or his opponent, and when he runs the risk of stern exposure, of being unseated, perhaps of being sent to prison and of being found liable in the whole expenses of the trial, amounting, it may be, to many thousand pounds—when he has these issues before him he thinks a good many times, even in the heat of an election, before he spends his money in illegitimate expenditure. And yet both in England and in Ireland there are certain corrupt boroughs—boroughs that are notoriously corrupt—and men are always found willing enough to offer themselves as candidates for them. Within the last six months two contests have been fought in two boroughs of this character. The published expenditure in both cases proved that the candidates had poured out their money like water, but, as in all such cases, the published expenditure was but a fraction of what really found its way out of the pockets of the candidates into those of the inhabitants of the boroughs respectively.

In both cases the Tory candidate was successful. Indeed, it may be taken for granted that in all cases of the sort the Tory candidate does win. The Tory party are cleverer, bolder, and more successful in their dealings with such places than the Liberals, and they always have money at their disposal. They have funds stored away in their war-chest, like the Prussians for military purposes, ready for each campaign. The Liberals have no such treasure-house, and, in consequence, they always start at a disadvantage with their opponents. This disadvantage does not go for much when any question of policy is before the country, provided that the Liberal view of the policy is accepted by the country. The destruction of the Established Church in Ireland, for instance, struck the imagination of the country, and no amount of Tory gold or clever electioneering manipulation could stem the current of feeling in the country. But in quiet times the advantage gained by the exuberance of expenditure, or the reputation of it, can never be overcome by any amount of enunciation of abstract Liberal "principles," and appeals to the memory of the great men whom the Liberal party have enrolled among their members, and to the work which these great men have done. The sinews of war are wanted quite as much in political as in military campaigns, and an election-chest is no despicable element in the chances of success of one party or the other at the polls. The Liberals are heavily handicapped by the want of it, and if those who keep preaching up the necessity of organization would devote their energies to the collection of party funds for the legitimate purposes of party organization and warfare, they would do some real good to the cause which they have at heart.

But while corruption in its coarser forms is now happily confined to certain well-known constituencies in England and Ireland (for both Wales and Scotland have the reputation of being pure in matters of election), the expense of contesting a seat is still considerable, and in some places exorbitant. It is calculated that a general election costs something like four millions sterling, and all this expenditure, except the comparatively inconsiderable sum that comes out of the Tory election-chest, falls upon the candidates. Borough seats cannot be contested except at a cost of from £500 to £5,000 for each candidate. County seats may run up as high as £20,000 per candidate, and no county in the United Kingdom can be fought under £1,000 to each candidate. It would be imagined from these figures that the expense would act as a deterrent, and that it would be difficult, if not impossible, to find some twelve hundred solid, unimaginative Englishmen willing to throw away so much money upon so little, and it is difficult to persuade men on the Liberal side of politics to engage in contests for county seats. The chances of success are small, as the landowning and farming classes are rigidly Tory. In the late Administration there was but one representative of an English county, and he was not in the cabinet. In the present Administration, except the law officers, there are only three representatives of boroughs. Out of something like one hundred and ninety county seats the Liberals do not hold thirty, and some of these are held by means of an electioneering contrivance rather than by regular party fighting. In boroughs, on the other hand, there is no dearth of candidates; it is a plethora rather than a dearth that has generally to be encountered. There is a multitude of rich unemployed men in the country who yearn for occupation, and who regard the occupation,

such as it is, of being in Parliament, even at the cost of a triennial or quadrennial fine of two or three thousand pounds sterling, as the acme of their ambition. These men are afraid of the trouble and exertion necessary to contest a large county, but they turn up in numbers whenever a vacancy occurs in any likely borough. There are others, again, and they are numerically a considerable number, who believe, or whose wives believe, that they gain in social consideration by being in the House of Commons. These are mainly the *nouveaux riches*, of whom there always is a sprinkling in every parliament. Others, again, are desirous of pushing a railway or a company or some commercial undertaking, and struggle to get a seat for the purpose. A few there are who have traditional claims to political consideration, and who regard a parliamentary career as their legitimate and hereditary right; and there are some who are urged to try their chances by desire for political or professional preferment.

To arrange and satisfy the claims, real or imaginary, of numerous candidates for the suffrages of borough constituencies, and to look out for candidates for county constituencies, is one of the many duties of such party organizations as journalists and magazine writers have been demanding, and various schemes have been suggested for the purpose. The work is best done by local societies or associations in each constituency, working in connection with and to some extent under the control of a central society in the metropolis. This is the method pursued quietly and effectively by the Tory party. What was formerly undertaken by the Carlton Club is now done by a central office, under the direction of the official "whip" or party manager. Every constituency is in communication with this central office and takes its instructions from that office. The local bodies are obedient; they like the dictation of the central body and they act upon it. Occasionally a powerful magnate in some county may kick at the pressure of the central authority, but he is soon brought to reason. The leaders of the party go to him and put it to his patriotism and his loyalty to his party to obey orders from headquarters; and their appeals are seldom disregarded. The Liberal party will obey no such orders. Even a semblance of dictation is resented, and the rumor of interference from headquarters is enough to set up the bristles of every Liberal in the locality regarding which the rumor has been spread. They have a central body to discharge the functions which the Reform Club used to discharge with regard to party management. But that central body modestly confines its efforts to giving good advice and supplying information. It has no means of enforcing its authority. Each Liberal constituency is a law to itself, and is guided by its own local wants and requirements. Attempts have been made to produce a uniform organization by means of caucuses and wire-pulling; but these attempts have not come to much, and are not likely to be admired as they become familiar. The Liberals must go their own way until some great question arises which will bring them together, and then they will be irresistible.

AN ANCIENT MEDITERRANEAN CITY.

MALTA, June 17, 1878.

AS I lately had occasion to touch at Kōmz (or Homs), on the coast of Tripoli, I improved the opportunity to spend an afternoon among the ruins of Leptis Magna. Kōmz is identical with the Ligatah of Smyth's chart and 'Mediterranean,' and has recently become the chief shipping point of the province of that name. It lies sixty miles eastward of Tripoli port and two miles westward of the ruins of Leptis, and owes its sudden commercial activity to the demand for alfa-grass. Vast fields of alfa are found at a day's journey inland from Kōmz, which is the chief depot for it on the whole Tripolitan coast. It is a pleasant walk along the beach that intervenes between the ruins of Leptis citadel and the port of Kōmz. As you near Leptis what has appeared like a variety of chimneys is seen to be the remains of columns and pillars and massive walls and arches and gateways, which attest the wealth and grandeur of the ancient city. Among the first objects of interest are three marble columns, which I carefully measured, and found to have a length of thirty feet and diameter of three feet eight and a half inches. They lie close together on the ground, half-buried in the sand, and appear as if moved to that point for shipment. The marble is of green and white and several other colored veins, which run lengthwise along the columns; green predominates, and there is great beauty in the combination of colors as well as the graceful curves of the columns. The kind of marble (called by Smyth *eipollino*) and form of column are very frequently met with all over the site, and there are many other columns, of the same marble but smaller dimensions, which could easily be removed without

damage. The south sides, exposed as they are to the desert winds, are rough and badly marred, and it would be advantageous either to remove them or bury them deeper in the sand. There are many varieties of granite and marble and a great number of columns and fragments. Among the most striking are the huge pieces of red Egyptian granite, which have been broken off the numerous columns of this material for shipment to Sphax and Sousa in Tunis, where they are used as rollers for grinding the olive-fruit to produce oil. The diameter of one circular fragment lying on the shore is four feet and five inches. In one spot on the west side of the old port there are thirteen grey granite columns close together, manifestly collected for removal, but now almost hidden by the soil.

At another point I observed a range of the tops of eleven columns, some broken, others still uninjured, and all of the variegated green marble mentioned above. This row of columns is within the massive walls of a very large edifice, where there is also seen the upper part of one end of a slab of white marble exquisitely carved and bearing a Latin inscription; the exposed part of the slab was seven feet long, three deep, and five wide. Near by is a capital of white marble, broken from a column two feet and a half in diameter. Many other handsomely-carved fragments of white marble capitals are scattered about the ruins. As to the walls, they are a wonder. The huge blocks of stone and granite are hewn to fit as closely as if shaped by the most exact lathes; but this is only in the lower and some of the upper parts. There can be no doubt that portions of all these massive walls have been rebuilt; for besides marked differences in construction, there are fragments of carved and fluted blocks, and in two places fragments of blocks with inscriptions upside down. Near by this edifice there is another with curved outline, of smaller extent but much more massive. The walls are faced with hewn blocks of stone inside and out, but formed of a conglomerate or concrete, with frequent sections of wide, flat bricks. Some idea of the strength of this mass may be formed from the fact that a portion of it having been undermined by the stream which flows by, it has fallen over, but remains intact, resisting strains never dreamed of by the designing engineer. There are some evidences of this edifice having been intended for baths. What was once the river is now a trickling stream flowing into a stagnant pool that was the old port; the entrance is closed by a sandy beach, and there is now no communication with the sea. In many places the quays are still visible, and there is little doubt that they are intact. One peculiarity not noticed in other ancient ports is the form of mooring-rings. At Leptis a semicircular hole is cut through a large mass of stone; one I measured was three feet deep and fourteen inches radius.

The driven sand and the deposits of the river have left little of Leptis above the ground, but what there is excites our admiration and wonder, and seems to invite those who have the means to penetrate into the loose substance which hides its art-treasures. The ruins equal in grandeur and extent those of any ancient city on the African coast, and there are very few on the opposite coast of the Mediterranean that are more interesting. That they are worthy of a careful study no one will deny, and that systematic excavation would repay the outlay may well be believed in the case of a city second only to Carthage and equal to Utica in grandeur and wealth, and older than either. The French seem to have been the first to plunder them. The columns which adorn the maitre-autel of the church of Saint-Germain-des-Prés in Paris were removed from Leptis Magna in the last century. After the conclusion of peace between the United States and Tripoli, Mr. Ridgely, acting United States consul, accompanied by M. Delaporte, the French consul, visited the ruins (June, 1806) in the *Enterprise*, Commander (afterwards Commodore) Porter, of Essex fame. There seems to have been no systematic excavation, although it appears from a *mémoire* addressed to the Prince de Bénévent by M. Delaporte "that a party of sailors were landed with picks and shovels." From this pamphlet, now very rare, it would appear that the copying of a few inscriptions and finding a few fragments of statuary comprised all that resulted from the excursion. Ten years later the Pasha of Tripoli gave the ruins to the British king. Two expeditions were sent under Commander (afterwards Admiral) Smyth, who was furnished with everything necessary to excavate and remove whatever he wished to. The allowance of money was certainly small, but then Arab labor was very cheap, and its employment was not necessary when there were so many British sailors at hand. The first expedition prepared many of the finest columns for removal, leaving them unguarded. The Arabs took advantage of this opportunity to provide themselves with a good supply of mill-stones and to ship the surplus to Tunis. When Smyth returned he found his columns almost all destroyed, but resuming the work of de-

struction begun by himself and his party and only continued by the Arabs, he soon gathered many more columns than he could move. Those that were removed are now, or rather were, in the royal gardens of Virginia waters, Windsor. Smyth, in his report, states that "the materials are the richest I have seen in such extensive quantity, for it appears to have been a profuse mass of porphyry, granitic porphyry, oriental granite and granalitique, and marbles of every description." I did not see any porphyry above ground; in other respects the description is still true. The weight of each of the three *cipollino* columns mentioned in the beginning of my letter (which are doubtless the ones which Smyth reported "that neither the raft-ports nor hatchways of the *Weymouth* would admit") is twenty-five tons. How were these and other heavier masses transported in the vessels of the time, and lifted in and out of them and into place? Is it not strange that some men of means and leisure, such as cruise about the Mediterranean in yachts, do not devote time and money to explorations and excavations which would not only afford them temporary amusement, but satisfy the universal human desire for distinction? A properly-fitted yacht might accomplish much with her crew, and I believe permission and protection could be very readily obtained from the Porte. Had I the time and means I should seek amusement in examining the numerous ruins between Algiers and Egypt, and, first of all, Leptis Magna.

The northern and southern shores of the Mediterranean present such a contrast that it must be seen to be appreciated. Every one knows what there is to be seen on the former. On the latter there are stretches of one hundred miles of coast without a habitation within five miles of the sea. Such is the Gulf of Sidra. Yet there are in the vicinity of its dangerous shores immense salt-ponds where nature does all the work except gathering the salt, vast fields of alfa, and a remarkable deposit of sulphur, besides excellent pasturage and a great deal more water and arable land than people generally suppose. The "mountains of salt" spoken of by travellers are identical, in my opinion, with some that I have seen, notably one at Karcorah. This is (or was, for it is being removed and shipped to Black Sea ports) a hummock forty-two feet in height and about three hundred yards in circumference. It was the result of eight years' gathering of about a hundredth part of the salt that had formed on the Karcorah pond. At the end of autumn the newly-gathered piles are covered with straw and the straw burned. This forms a crust perfectly impervious to water, and the winter rains have no effect on the pile.

Correspondence.

MR. SICKELS AS REPORTER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "N. N.," under date of July 13, 1878, writes you a letter entitled "A Judicial Fraud," in which he complains of Mr. Sickels, the State Reporter, and charges him with "garbling" and "suppressing portions of opinions." The specification under this charge is that he has "stricken out the title" of a certain cause, "changed it to 'anonymous,' and permitted it to be thus published in the Court of Appeals reports as a true report." In consequence of this your intelligent correspondent remarks: "It is a question whether the case can now be cited at all as authority in the courts, but there can be no question whatever whether this garbled volume of reports and the State Reporter himself should not both be suppressed." The enormity charged upon Mr. Sickels is that he reported a certain case under the title of "anonymous" instead of giving its true title. The report is in 67 N. Y. 599. It shows that the defendants in the action had been adjudged guilty of a fraud. Is it a "judicial fraud," requiring the suppression of the reports and the reporter, to withhold the names of parties in a reported case?

What has been the practice heretofore? Let us begin with Judge Cowen, who was reporter before he went on the bench. In the nine volumes of reports prepared and issued by him I find thirteen cases reported under the title of "anonymous." As an example see "anonymous," 2 Cowen 539, in which an attachment was issued against an attorney for costs in a suit which he brought without authority and failed in, and the order of the Court was that attorney pay the costs within ten days or be suspended from practice. And still this "judicial fraud," Judge Cowen, withheld from a curious public the name of the attorney guilty of such malpractice! Does not "N. N." think Cowen and his reports should have been suppressed? Or does he sympathize with the fraudulent attorney?

In the seven volumes of Nicholas Hill, jr.'s, reports I find twelve cases in which that eminent counsellor and model reporter "has" (in the language of "N. N.") "stricken out the title of the cause, changed it to anonymous, and permitted it to be thus published in the reports as a true report." I also find one case which Mr. Hill reported under the title "In the matter of —, an alien" (7 Hill 137). Why did Mr. Hill suppress the name of this "blasted foreigner"? Let Hill and his reports forthwith be suppressed!

Judge Duer was also guilty of similar suppression in at least five cases—one, like that complained of by "N. N.," a case of arrest (1 Duer 613).

Cairns, Johnson, Wendell, Paige, Sandford, Robertson, Daly, Hopkins, Barbour, Abbott, and Howard have frequently "stricken out the title of the cause, changed it to anonymous, etc.," but no one before "N. N." ever discovered that this was a "fraud," requiring "suppression" of the report and the reporter.

These reporters, as well as Mr. Sickels, have supposed that the main object of reporting decisions was to announce the principles of law established, not to punish the transgressor by embalming his name in the reports in connection with the transgression.

I have no knowledge as to the particular case referred to by "N. N.," except from what appears in the reports. I cannot say whether in this case the reporter, as is usual, was governed by directions given by the Court or one of the judges. As he has done no wrong, I do not think he is called upon to make any explanation. But I do know that Mr. Sickels is a faithful and competent reporter, in whom the Court of Appeals and the bar justly have the greatest confidence; and I do not believe that either the judges of the Court of Appeals or the lawyers of this State are prepared to favor his "suppression" by reason of anything charged upon him by "N. N."

LAWYER.

ALBANY, July 29, 1878.

Notes.

HOUGHTON, OSGOOD & CO. will shortly publish a 'History of Dartmouth College,' by Baxter P. Smith, of the class of 1854; and Mr. Emerson's Old-South lecture, revised and enlarged, on the 'Fortune of the Republic.'—D. Appleton & Co. have added the Essays of Elia to their tasteful New Handy-Volume Series.—Henry Holt & Co. are ready and desirous to exchange copies of the imperfect first edition of 'Maid Ellice' for the corrected edition.—Charles Scribner's Sons have issued to their subscribers the second volume of 'Bryant's Popular History of the United States,' of which we shall speak hereafter. The narrative at all points is brought down to the eighteenth century.—Among the interesting papers read before the Philological Association at Saratoga during the past month was one by Prof. H. C. G. Brandt, of the Johns Hopkins University, on the Roman alphabet in German. Partly it was an historical account of the origin of the Gothic printed alphabet, and partly it recommended some orthographical reforms in adopting the Roman alphabet. The Spelling Reform Association, which met in the same town, recommended for our English spelling five rules, as follows: (1) use *e* for *ea* equivalent to *e* short, as in *helth*; (2) omit silent *e* after a short vowel, as in *hav*; (3) use *f* for *ph*, as in *fantom*; (4) omit one letter of a final double, as in *shal*; (5) use *t* for final *ed* equivalent to *t*, as in *lasht*.—The Annual Report of the New York Meteorological Observatory for 1877 shows a continued falling-off in the mean annual rainfall for this vicinity, and, from an examination of the Paris records from 1689, Director Draper concludes that we are in a period of still decreasing rainfall. The October downpouring and the December drought (8.14 and 0.68 inches respectively) were alike remarkable.—Mr. Edward McPherson's 'Hand-book of Politics for 1878' (New York: Tribune Office) is certainly not the least valuable of his biennial reminders of events which the American people are so prone to forget. It covers the two years from July 15, 1876, to July 1, 1878—a period not closed, as the Potter Committee daily proves. It includes the last of Grant and the beginning of Hayes; the popular vote for President, the count, the Electoral Commission; the inauguration; the civil-service order; the "policy" towards South Carolina and Louisiana; the silver mania in Congress and out of it; State party platforms; various judicial decisions; some useful revenue and currency tables, and much more that we cannot particularize. It is a perfect treasury for the coming campaigns.—In a letter to the *Academy* of July 13 the Rev. Joseph Edkins pays a just tribute to the lamented W. F. Mayers, late Chinese Secretary to the British Legation. It appears that

this admirable scholar had investigated for Mr. Edkins the history of the loadstone. He found the variations of the needle recorded as early as 1080 A.D. by a Chinese author named Shen Kwa.—The death of the great Romance scholar, Frederick Diez, has called out numerous accounts of his life and services to philology. One of the most recent and popular is a lecture by Dr. Hermann Breymann, professor at Munich, for the benefit of the Diez Foundation, and is entitled 'Friederich Diez: Sein Leben, seine Werke und deren Bedeutung für die Wissenschaft.' Breymann gives a pleasant account of the simple and uneventful life which was so eventful for philology. His various works are briefly examined and their value for philology and literary history critically estimated. The student who desires a more extensive estimate of Diez will find it in a valuable pamphlet by Ugo A. Canello, 'Il Prof. Diez e la Filologia Romanza nel nostro secolo,' published in Florence in 1872 as an extract from the *Rivista Europea*.

—The appearance of a third edition of Mr. Henry C. Lea's 'Superstition and Force' is a sign that our highest scholarship is not without honor in its native country. Mr. Lea has met every fresh demand for his work with a careful revision of it, and the present edition is not only fuller and, if possible, more accurate than either of the preceding, but, from the thorough elaboration, is also more like a harmonious concept and less like a batch of studies; in other words, the *North American Review* articles have become chapters by another process than merely placing them together and finding a common title for them. There are very few pages of this third edition that do not show in text or notes some change to meet the conscientious requirements of the author. His researches during the past twelve years have called for an increase of two-fifths in the number of pages. "The Wager of Law" and "The Wager of Battle" have been equally extended, but somewhat less than "The Ordeal" or than "Torture." In this last chapter there is abundant evidence of further enquiry into French jurisprudence, as in the first two it is clear that Wales and the Norse nations have received greater attention. The same is true of China and Japan and (following the latest explorers) of Africa. Apparently the sense of the oneness of the human race has grown upon the author as his studies have progressed, and he has been led to scrutinize the customs of the Jews for his purpose as archaeologists now look for pile-dwellings and stone and flint implements in Greece, once, and not so long ago, viewed wholly as a land of classic remains. He has gone still further and deeper, as the new passages connecting modern superstitions and cruelties with our Aryan ancestors show; and to this circumstance we doubtless owe a work which he has now in hand, according to an announcement in the volume before us, and to which he has given the provisional title of 'Supernaturalism: Aryan and Semitic; with special reference to the Theory of Evil and the Practice of Magic.' This can hardly be less than an abstract of the history of the great religions, and its publication, for which no date is fixed, will certainly be looked for with interest both by scholars and by the public at large.

—In *Lippincott's* for August Mr. Edward King continues to utilize his war experience in "Along the Danube." He lingers longest at Orsova, the border town in which the Rumanians, Hungarians, and Servians mingle, in striking contrast one with another. Mr. Edward H. Knight begins a series of papers on the Paris Exposition, with a lucid description of the site and the principal buildings, and answers the natural enquiry, Whether the Exposition is superior to that at Philadelphia, by saying that they roof over more space at Paris, and that their landscape gardening is far superior in finish; but they suffer from want of room such as Fairmount Park afforded. Mr. Wirt Sikes writes very agreeably and graphically of Tenby, a watering-place on the south coast of Wales. Marie Howland expounds a meritorious system of musical notation—the so-called Galin method—which unquestionably has its use in vocal training, and perhaps in teaching the theory of music; if it were also capable of greatly facilitating execution, musicians would by this time probably have adopted it, but apparently the power to execute does not outstrip the ability to read our present notation. Mr. James's study of the British soldier is written in the sympathetic vein of his recent writings, and he very well describes the mixed feelings of an American Anglo-Saxon when there is a chance of England's going to war. What struck Mr. James in witnessing the "preparations for precaution" was not only the supremely fine appearance of the British soldier, but his youthfulness:

"It is hardly too much to say that the British army, as a stranger observes it nowadays, is an army of boys. All the regiments are boyish:

they are made up of lads who range from seventeen to five-and-twenty. The modern grenadier, as he perambulates the London pavement, is for the most part a fresh-colored lad of moderate stature, who hardly strikes one as offering the elements of a very solid national defence."

—George Eliot introduces us in the July *Macmillan's* to a new breakfast party, where a *menu* somewhat like that set down for the guests of Mr. Mallock's now famous country-house is discussed. The feast is over, and amid the fragrance of Havana cigars the new Hamlet, "blonde, metaphysical, and sensuous," is talking with his Wittenberg friends, Osric, Laertes, Rosencrantz, and the rest. No novice will take pleasure in striving to attach a meaning to the stubborn and uncouth idiom which these college youths use to convey their ideas about the worth of life and the rule of action, whether it be the Church's "imperative," or Taste, or what not. We have not space to extract the argument, but it seems to lean finally toward Hamlet's conclusion—

"The Ideal has discoveries which ask
No test, no faith, save that we joy in them."

In the earlier part Laertes wins our friendship for his downright onslaught on the cynical Rosencrantz—

"Who clothes his body and his sentient soul
With skill and thoughts of men, and yet denies
A human good worth toiling for";

and the author's sympathies seem to be with him when he represents graphically the possible sources of delight in life for one who looks only to this earth, and maintains that they are sufficient. It is needless to say that the whole poem deserves reading, not so much for its poetry as for its thought. It was, by the way, printed here in *Harper's Bazar* simultaneously with its appearance in England.

—In M. Sarcy's 'Comédiens et Comédiennes,' which we reviewed not long ago, there is a portrait of M. Got in the part of *Maitre Pierre Pathelin*. It was fitting that the oldest associate of the Comédie-Française should be engraved in a character of the oldest extant play of the French language. Mr. Henry James, jr., a competent critic of acting, has "no hesitation in accepting M. Got as the first of living actors," and he praises especially the exuberant and tremendous comicality with which he carries off this relic of mediæval farce. The play itself has had adventures enough to furnish forth one of the most extended and interesting chapters of literary history. It was written in the fifteenth century, possibly by the famous François Villon, but more probably by Pierre Blanchet. Saturated in situation and language with Gallic salt, it was the most popular farce of the century, and doubtless received additions on all sides; it was imitated by Reuchlin in Germany; and one of its most important scenes is to be found in the "Towneley Mysteries." The familiar phrase "Revenons à nos moutons" had its origin in the action of this play, and many a French proverb is first to be found in it. Both Molière and La Fontaine admired its frank gaiety; but after their death comedy stiffened, and the frantic farce was worked over into a mild three-act comedy—"L'Avocat Pathelin," by Brueys and Palaprat, which held the stage for nearly two hundred years, and only left it because M. Edouard Fournier, in 1872, brought out a reverent revision of the original text, far more racy and idiomatic than the watered comedy whose usurpation it ended. Another modification of the old farce has been set as a comic opera. It was, however, "L'Avocat Pathelin" which served as a basis for "The Village Lawyer," a two-act farce produced by Garrick in London, at Drury Lane Theatre, with the usual success, and rather a more lasting success than most of Garrick's productions, for the play may be said almost to hold the stage to this day, as it has been played here in New York, by Mr. Jefferson, within twenty years. Nor is this the last of the play's transformations: in those places of amusement which for some inscrutable reason are called "variety" shows, is frequently given "an Ethiopian sketch" in two scenes, called "The Mutton Trial," which is a perversion of "The Village Lawyer"; and thus traces of the oldest specimen of French dramatic literature are still to be seen on the American stage.

—The new edition of Duruy's 'Histoire des Romains' (New York: F. W. Christern), to which we recently drew attention in No. 678, is beyond doubt the most elegant, and in many respects the most serviceable, Roman history in existence, for there is nothing which can bring a nation or a period so distinctly to the mind of the reader as an abundance of well-chosen illustrations. In this the editors have kept their promise, and the illustrations are without exception genuine ones—actual landscapes, works of art, archaeological remains, and (when the time comes) no doubt portraits. Merely to turn over the leaves of these six or eight volumes will be an education in the spirit of antiquity. As for the his-

tory itself, it must be borne in mind, it is not new, but revised. It was originally written before Mommsen's labors had revolutionized so large a portion of early Roman history—at least in the judgment of his followers; and the veteran Frenchman could, perhaps, hardly be expected to examine all over again the conclusions at which he had once deliberately arrived. We must take it, therefore, for what it is, founded upon Niebuhr, but not upon Mommsen; and this very fact will no doubt recommend it to a large number of persons. For example, Niebuhr's Pelasgian theory is assumed as proved. As to the principal topic of the Introduction of one hundred and thirty-one pages, the sketches of the several nationalities—their history, their remains, etc.—are good; but there is no general ethnographical sketch, and the student would hardly learn that the Umbrians, for instance, were any more nearly related to the Romans than the Etruscans were.

—We have received from M. Paul Fredericq, whose 'Rôle politique des ducs de Bourgogne' we noticed a few weeks ago (see *Nation*, No. 667), a thin pamphlet containing an account of the Calvinist University at Ghent, which existed from 1578 to 1584. The very existence of this university has been forgotten until recently, but it forms an interesting and instructive episode in the history of the time. Its establishment was the result of the "Pacification of Ghent" (1576), by which the whole Netherlands were for a while united under the Prince of Orange, while its overthrow belongs to the year of the Prince's death, and is a part of the reaction instituted by the Prince of Parma. The secondary causes of this reaction are well illustrated by the annals of the university, as well as of the municipality of Ghent, both of which were managed in the narrowest and most bigoted spirit, in spite of the protests of William of Orange and his efforts to establish a genuine toleration. The instruction, it may be observed, was gratuitous, and the professors received very fair salaries. The same author has prepared a document in commemoration of the three-hundredth anniversary of the Pacification, which was celebrated at Ghent in the year of our Centennial. This 'Album du Cortège Historique de la Pacification de Gand' is a large octavo of forty-eight pages, with double columns of Dutch and French, and with eleven photographic illustrations of the most striking features of the procession. The Netherlands, to judge by these pictures, have lost neither their taste for nor their skill in processions and allegorical displays, so amply illustrated by Mr. Kirk and Mr. Motley. Most of the pictures represent enormous cars, containing figures grouped in different scenes—Egmont and Horn before the Tribunal of Blood; the Inquisition; the "Spanish Fury" at Antwerp; the signature of the Pacification of Ghent, etc. The text, by M. Fredericq, describes the pictures, with brief historical explanations.

—We are glad to state that the *Rivista di Filologia*, which suspended publication two years ago on the completion of its second volume, is to be succeeded by the *Giornale di Filologia Romanza*, under the direction of E. Monaci, one of the editors of the *Rivista*. The first number of the new periodical contains a very suggestive article by Canello, entitled "Lingua e Dialetto," in which the writer examines the two classes of words in every language, the learned and the popular, and shows incidentally that Brachet's test to distinguish between the two classes in French, the persistence of the Latin accent, is not sufficient; the word must be judged by its conformity to the laws of phonology. An interesting example is the word *Italia*, which, had it ever been a popular word, would have been *Itaglia*, like *figlia* from Latin *filia*, etc. It is now becoming a popular word, and an Italian minister the other day actually wrote it *Itaglia*, and many deputies so pronounce it in Parliament. The indefatigable scholar, Prof. Rajna, of Milan, furnishes an article on a collection of fables in the Ambrosian library, or rather a collection of morals, for the writer, in his desire to present to the reader only the useful, left out the fables themselves, although he took pains to retain the titles. The morals are in the Franco dialect peculiar to the North of Italy in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, and, as Rajna ingeniously shows, were written by an Italian trying to express himself in French. The collection is valuable as throwing light on the difficult question of the origin of the above-mentioned jargon, which is such a singular phase in the history of the early Italian literature of Lombardy. The same MS. also contains some adages in Provençal, one of which, "Honestaz es e cortesia pensar tal ren qe bona sia" (it is honest and courteous to think the thing that is good), might well be practised at the present day. N. Caix examines the Italian pronoun, and shows that *vi* is from *vobis*, and is not, as is often supposed, an adverb of place from *ibi*, as is the case with *ei* from *ecce hic*. The writer also shows that *le*, fem. dat., is simply a contraction for *lei*, and not, directly at least, from *illa*. The department of

Miscellany (*Varietà*) contains etymologies, a valuable notice of the relation of a Florentine MS. *canzoniere* (Laurenz. Red. 9) to the famous *Libro Reale*, and the correction by D'Ancona of several mistakes made by Perrens in his recent 'History of Florence.' In addition to these there are book-notices and bibliography of periodicals. We trust that all Romance students will extend their favor to the new periodical, which, in spite of its stronger rivals, the *Romania* and *Zeitschrift für romanische Philologie*, deserves the warmest encouragement, for it is the organ of a school of young Italian philologists who have already begun to reflect credit on their country and make valuable contributions to Romance philology.

WALLACE'S TROPICAL NATURE.*

THE present volume by Mr. Wallace gives a glimpse of the tropics from a new point of view. The climate, the luxuriant vegetation, and the varied forms of animal life in the equatorial zone have been described with minuteness by many naturalists. But there appears to have been still wanting a comprehensive treatment of the subject, an exposition of the phenomena which are *essentially* tropical, and an explanation of the relations of such phenomena to each other. It is clear that if some of these relations, such as those of climate to color, and of organic structures to surroundings, are placed in the strong light thrown upon biology by the theory of descent, they may probably receive much needful explanation. This task has been attempted by Mr. Wallace. When we remember that from his investigations in the tropics he originated, independently of Mr. Darwin, the theory of derivation now most widely known as the Darwinian theory, we can better realize the clearness of his vision and his fitness for the undertaking. A twelve years' residence in the tropics, under favorable conditions for exploration, afforded him abundant materials, from which he has selected enough for a bold outline sketch of tropical nature. There is no confusion from multiplicity of details, nor is there left upon the mind any impression that facts unfavorable to the theory have been suppressed. The reader is taken into the confidence of a candid guide, and is shown even those things which one trembling for the safety of a favorite hypothesis might have concealed.

The present volume consists of two parts: the first deals in a general way with the climate, plants, and animals of the tropics as related to one another; the second part comprises several special essays upon kindred topics, all of which have a bearing upon the main subject. It is with only a portion of the first part that the present notice now concerns itself—namely, the relations of climate to vegetation at the equator.

The equatorial zone, in which the chief characteristics of tropical nature are most clearly manifested, and which Mr. Wallace has taken for special study, comprises about twelve degrees north and south of the equator. The striking feature of its climate is the remarkable uniformity of temperature. The annual range is less than thirty degrees, and the daily range about ten degrees, Fahrenheit. Many causes conspire to bring about this high temperature and maintain its uniformity. Mr. Wallace cites among them the constant high temperature of the soil and of the surface waters of the ocean, the great amount of aqueous vapor in the atmosphere, the great extent of the intertropical regions, which causes the winds that reach the equatorial zone to be always warm, and the latent heat given out during the formation of rain and dew.

"In this favored zone the heat is never oppressive, as it so often becomes on the borders of the tropics; and the large, absolute amount of moisture always present in the air is almost as congenial to the health of man as it is favorable to the growth and development of vegetation. Again, the lowering of the temperature at night is so regular, and yet so limited in amount, that, although never cold enough to be unpleasant, the nights are never so oppressively hot as to prevent sleep. During the wettest months of the year, it is rare to have many days in succession without some hours of sunshine, while, even in the driest months, there are occasional showers to cool and refresh the overheated earth. As a result of this condition of the earth and atmosphere, there is no check to vegetation, and little if any demarcation of the seasons. Plants are all evergreen; flowers and fruits, although more abundant at certain seasons, are never altogether absent; while many annual food-plants, as well as some fruit-trees, produce two crops a year."

Local conditions in limited regions may slightly modify these general features. Mr. Wallace states that the excessive violence of meteorological phenomena generally supposed to be characteristic of the tropics is not by any means true of the equatorial zone. Electrical disturbances are much more frequent, but not generally more violent than in temperate regions. "Uniformity and abundance, rather than any excessive manifestations,

* 'Tropical Nature, and Other Essays. By Alfred R. Wallace.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1878.

are the prevailing characteristics of all the climatal phenomena of the equatorial zone." In this zone of equable climate there is a forest belt a thousand miles wide. Its northern and southern borders are unevenly fringed by lower woods, then by open country which ends in arid plains and deserts. The evergreen, equatorial forest consists mainly of unbranched trunks, which are not thickly crowded, and which suggest the columns of an immense edifice. The roof of foliage is almost unbroken, and the gloom of its depths is the only twilight of the tropics. The trunks are seen, on closer inspection, to be of many different kinds. In the forests of the temperate zone there is a monotonous repetition of identical shapes—the forests of pines are pines alone, the oak forests have chiefly oaks. But in the forests of the equator the columnar trunks are of many different species and of great diversity of form. Some of them are cylindrical, others are broader at base, and many have wing-like projections or buttresses which radiate from the trunk like flat roots. These buttresses spring from various heights, in some cases thirty feet or more, and with such space between them that it would, if roofed over, form a good-sized hut for several persons. These strong slabs, which flank the trunk, contribute much mechanical support. The same end is reached in other ways by other trees. Some have secondary aerial roots, which thicken until they can bear much strain in stress of weather. Beneath the higher forest there is a second, of shade-loving trees; and beneath the latter an undergrowth of shrubs, of ferns, and of dwarf palms. Clothing the ground of the forest there is a carpet of *Selaginella*, the club-moss of our florists, and this is often varied with a few herbaceous plants having unattractive flowers.

The climbing plants in the tropics form a conspicuous feature of the vegetation. Many of these twine around other slender trunks and hang in festoons from branch to branch. They are often twisted around each other, forming cables; but more frequently they are independent of such mutual support.

"In the shade of the forest they rarely or never flower, and seldom even produce foliage; but when they have reached the summit of the tree which supports them, they expand under the genial influence of light and air, and often cover their foster-parent with blossoms not its own. Here, as a rule, the climber's growth would cease; but the time comes when the supporting tree rots and falls, and the creeper comes with it in torn and tangled masses to the ground. But though its foster-parent is dead it has itself received no permanent injury, but shoots out again until it finds a fresh support, mounts another tree, and again puts forth its leaves and flowers. . . . When these accidents and changes have been again and again repeated, the climber may have travelled very far from its parent stem, and may have mounted to the tree-tops and descended again to the earth several times over."

But where are the flowers of the tropics? These are less conspicuous and less abundant than are the flowers in the temperate zone. A few brilliantly-colored, showy blossoms are found in favored localities, but these are so rare as to be exceptions. The correlations of colored flowers with insects are supposed to afford an adequate explanation of this scarcity:

"The varied forms of life are linked together in such mutual dependence that no one can inordinately increase without bringing about a corresponding increase or diminution of other forms. The insects which are best adapted to fertilize flowers cannot probably increase much beyond definite limits, because in doing so they would lead to a corresponding increase of insectivorous birds and animals which would keep them down. The chief fertilizers—bees and butterflies—have enemies at every stage of their growth, from the egg to the perfect insect, and their numbers are therefore limited by causes quite independent of the supply of vegetable food. It may, therefore, be the case that the numbers of suitable insects are totally inadequate to the fertilization of the countless millions of forest-trees over such vast areas as the equatorial zone presents, and that in consequence a large proportion of the species have become adapted either for self-fertilization or for cross-fertilization by the agency of the wind."

A few of the lower forest-trees bear conspicuous blossoms, but these are low down on the trunks, and are visited by the low-flying butterflies. The sensitive plant of the tropics has, of course, attracted Mr. Wallace's attention. When a sensitive mimosa is rudely touched the leaflets close and the whole leaf shrinks into its narrowest compass. Mr. Wallace suggests that, since these plants are all low-growing herbs or shrubs with delicate foliage, they might possibly be liable to destruction by herbivorous animals, and might escape by their singular power of suddenly collapsing before the jaws open to devour them. "It is curious that, as most of the species are somewhat prickly, so easy and common a mode of protection as the development of stronger spines should here have failed, and that its place should be supplied by so singular a power as that of

simulating death, in a manner which suggests the possession of both sensation and voluntary motion."

In this volume Mr. Wallace brings out very clearly the fact that the plants of the equatorial zone have not had to contend against unfavorable atmospheric influences. The struggle has been with other plants and with animals, and under nearly uniform conditions. Therefore, as a result of the abounding energy of plant-life under wholly favoring and uniform conditions, every nook of the forest has some specially-adapted form. "The never-ceasing struggle for existence between the various species in the same area has resulted in a nice balance of organic forces, which gives the advantage now to one, now to another species, and prevents any one type of vegetation from monopolizing territory to the exclusion of the rest."

The work is written in an engaging style and without technical terms. In a subsequent notice we may consider Mr. Wallace's chapters on Color and Climate.

HEBREW RECORDS.*

A PORTION of Dr. Giles's critical work on the Scriptures appeared nearly thirty years ago, but was soon withdrawn from circulation. Over "the cause which led to this, and the results which followed," the author, apparently from charitable motives, casts a veil, and we see no reason for attempting to lift it. What interests us is whether the work then withdrawn deserved to be reissued; and we must emphatically say it did—not as a production of uncommon erudition, originality, or ingenuity, but as a very serious and very honest piece of labor devoted to the elucidation of subjects not only naturally wrapt in obscurity, but by many—from piety, or weakness—assiduously and zealously kept from the light. What gives additional value to this attack on prejudices which ought to be obsolete but are not, is the religious devotion of the writer to the kernel hidden within the historical shells, the smashing of which he renews with such youthful ardor, though a septuagenarian; to "that inner spiritual life which remains when criticism has done its best and its worst."

The object of the author in his first volume is "to enquire into the historical value of the several books of the Old Testament, their authors, the time when they were written, the harmony, as well as the discrepancies, which exists between them, besides many other points . . . determining the historical value of these Scriptures" (p. 19). His main conclusions may be summed up thus: The Hebrew Canon, as it now appears, "began to be put together in the fifth century before the Christian era." "The Law was first published, with such additions and insertions in the original legislation of Moses as were thought applicable" to the times of the compilers, "whether found in any ancient documents or handed down by tradition, or dictated by their wish to produce a code suited to the emergencies of the age." This compilation was "due to the laborious zeal of Ezra and perhaps of Nehemiah," about 450 B.C. "We must look for a later date for the first appearance of the Prophets, as they are now found, in a uniform collection, made probably soon after the year B.C. 400, when the prophet Malachi produced the short work which now stands last" in the respective division. The collection of the Hagiographa, as contained in the Hebrew editions of the Old Testament, was probably "added to the Canon about 150 years before the Christian era, when the Book of Daniel . . . is thought to have been compiled" (p. 194). The historical books, from Genesis to the second Book of Kings, form one continued narrative, compiled from books and documents now lost, and in part distinctly referred to by the editors. The language in which the earlier writings of the Hebrews were composed must have differed very considerably from that used by the compiler. Nothing that we now possess was so composed by Moses, who would have written in Egyptian. We possess very little that can be plausibly ascribed to David or Solomon, most of the Psalms and Proverbs, Canticles, and Ecclesiastes being productions of a late date. The Books of Job, Daniel, and Esther are fictions composed for moral or political purposes, the last-named being based on a solemnity existing among the Jews, the historical origin of which has been effaced by time. The Books of Chronicles form a late supplement to the historical writings, with priestly tendencies, and of very questionable authenticity. All the historical parts of the Canon teem with discrepancies, anachronisms, exaggerations, and other inaccuracies; their value concerning the events of the remoter ages, for which they

* Hebrew and Christian Records: an Historical Enquiry concerning the Age and Authorship of the Old and New Testaments. By the Rev. Dr. Giles, Rector of Eton, Surrey, and formerly of Corpus Christi College, Oxford. Now first published complete. Two vols. 8vo. London, 1877. (This notice is limited to vol. 1.)

supply us with no contemporary records, is particularly light. The history of those ages is full of obscurity and uncertainty.

Dr. Giles's historical scepticism is generally uncompromising, at times even excessive for a lay critic. But his criticism is not sweeping or presumptuous. He endeavors to prove every assertion by a long chain of arguments, supported by ungarbled quotations in full. We must say that in at least two-thirds of the matters considered one-third of his arguments ought to be sufficient to justify his conclusions, but he has to contend against prejudices which produce serious efforts to prove, for instance, that the prophet Samuel is not necessarily the author of the book which contains a long narrative of events that happened after his death, although his name is generally placed at its head—because it begins with an account of his life, just as "Numbers" is the superscription of another book which opens with a census; or that the patriarch Job could not have written the book detailing his trials and designated after him—which is like proving that Odysseus and Æneas must not be considered the composers of the epics called 'Odyssey' and 'Æneid.' Yet, as long as there are universities in the most enlightened countries of Christendom from the chairs of which the view is still seriously defended that the prayer of Jonah was actually composed, though not written, in the belly of the fish that swallowed him, we must not be too hasty in condemning as absolutely Quixotic attacks even on the most absurd notions, if sanctioned by age. In fact, the chief merit of Dr. Giles's fight for historical truth as established by critical evidence lies in the heaviness of his attacks on absurd traditions, and in the regular method which characterizes his labor. His work—barring some digressions—is an exhaustive popular compilation, including such argumentations as in any other field would expose their author to the reproach of descending to the level of the vulgar. His proofs are based on common sense; no particular learning is required in following him; the English Bible is the only book which the doubting reader has to consult; the results are inculcated by ample repetition—more than needed; the diction is free from obscurity, though often diffuse and rambling; the tone serious, candid, and free from sarcasm and virulence.

But while most of the evidence adduced is cogent and convincing, much of it is light and flimsy. With all his radicalism, Dr. Giles admits too much as worthy of historical consideration. In controverting one Biblical point he often adduces against it another, the authority of which, according to himself, is still feebler. He combats, for instance, statements contained in Kings with weapons drawn from Chronicles, and not merely in order to show up discrepancies. He often seriously considers facts in the lives of Abraham, Jacob, and Moses, as if we had their history with precise details before us—after having amply proved that all the narratives concerning those personages of a legendary age were composed, or at least compiled, a thousand years after it, and based on the reminiscences of a people constantly distracted by civil war and foreign invasion, and prone to superstitious belief and national self-glorification. Such assertions as "The Pentateuch . . . is a correct account, as far as human things admit, of what Moses did and taught" (p. 77), or "The Law of Moses was given fifteen hundred years before Christ" (p. 119), however qualified they may be, do not agree with the author's critical principles or with his opinion about the Hebrew "chain of tradition" supposed to link the Pentateuch with the time of Joshua. "What a long period—nine hundred years! Nations have arisen and passed away; revolutions upon revolutions have been made and again forgotten; empires have been formed and perished in half that time; languages have changed so totally," etc. (p. 89). Dr. Giles, though correct in his main argument, is, as a critic, both too destructive and too conservative, discarding—what is doubly surprising—much indirect evidence from sources of an historical age, and admitting too much of what, from the nature of the things, must be purely legendary. His historical Israel begins too late, the pre-historical has too distinct a shape. There is altogether too much looseness in his expositions; their positive *residuum* is very indefinite. Inadequate knowledge of Hebrew, which is betrayed throughout—we do not refer to the numerous shocking misprints—may have had something to do with it, by preventing a thorough sifting of the poetical parts of the Old Testament, and an appreciation of the archaic portions, preserved in their original form, according to their real historical value.

Slips of various kind occur, some of which are chargeable to lack of revision. Thus we find "446" (p. 22) and "445" B.C. (p. 51) as dates of the same event; the number of the twenty-two books of the Hebrew Bible "reduced to seventeen by the union of the first five" (p. 26), instead of to *eighteen*; "Eli" for *El* (p. 42); the Book of Enoch enumer-

ated among the lost writings mentioned in the *Old Testament* (p. 304); *sahadutha*, a plain Chaldaic derivation from *sahad*, turned into a compound (p. 312); and a "king of Sihon" (p. 322) for *King Sihon*. Severe critics will easily detect graver defects of detail; but the value of the work does not consist in its statements concerning separate points, but in its negative *ensemble*. Nor is it written for scholars, though it serves them here and there by accumulating and grouping critical evidence. It addresses itself to plain readers of the Old Testament, misled by false superscriptions, but not devoid of common sense and freedom of judgment.

Private Libraries of Providence. With a Preliminary Essay on the Love of Books. By Horatio Rogers. (Providence: Sidney S. Rider. 1878.)—This handsome volume has grown out of a series of articles originally prepared for the daily press, and now revised and increased in number, and introduced by a rambling but pleasant discourse on books, the mania for them, the more noted bibliophiles, the prices they have paid, etc., etc. Space is also found in the foot-notes for interesting biographical sketches of the late John Keese and William Gowans, the one a witty auctioneer of the last generation in this city, the other a not yet forgotten dealer in old books; and of the veteran Joseph Sabin, who is still in the flesh, and whose name promises to outlast him at the old stand, since his sons are associated with him. The sale which Mr. Rogers commemorates on p. 46 as having brought "the largest sum ever realized for the same number of volumes," still retains this distinction: the Perkins collection of 865 lots brought £26,000 in June, 1873, or "an average of rather more than £30 per lot." While these sheets were in the press, however, the Firmin-Didot collection of 715 lots was bringing £34,200, or an average of nearly £48; and the sale which is to take place in the fall, and should be regarded as a postponement rather than as a separate sale, will make by far the highest total ever realized from the library of one man, though perhaps the average may not exceed that already attained in June. To the various hides used in binding, enumerated on p. 65, a recent discovery in the British Museum adds the skin of the kangaroo.

The Providence libraries here described by samples are eight in number; of most of them an interior view, or the owner's coat-of-arms or his book-plate, is given. The best known and the best is the collection of the late John Carter Brown, whose strength lies in Americana of date prior to the present century, and which contains more than one unique copy of rarities such as the first libraries in the world would gladly contend for. Even its own catalogue, in four volumes, of which only fifty copies were printed, commands a high price when obtainable. A new and enlarged edition of Part I. of this catalogue (fifteenth and sixteenth centuries) was reprinted in 1875; and Mr. Rogers states that Part II. (seventeenth century), likewise enlarged, is nearly ready for the press. The Brown library is estimated to contain ten thousand volumes. Twice that number is assigned to the library of Mr. Joseph J. Cooke, who has cultivated no one special line; eight thousand is the supposed number of Mr. C. Fiske Harris's, whose specialty is American poetry (indexed in print in 1874), chap-books, song-books, broadside ballads, etc.; works relating to American slavery and the Rebellion; specimens of early printing, and engravings. Mr. Rogers, by the way, in a foot-note on p. 183, controverts the romance of Müller's forced retouching of his plate of the Sistine Madonna, and consequent death, to which a writer in the August *Harper's* has just given fresh currency. Mr. John Russell Bartlett's modest yet choice working library is strong in whatever pertains to our civil war. Mr. Royal C. Taft's collection is praised for its rich quality of bindings. He has devoted himself to English literature, costly illustrated works on botany, and to Stothard's designs, whether in books or by themselves. Mr. Alexander Farnum also makes English literature a specialty, and his collection of wood-engravings is worth remembering. Mr. Sidney S. Rider excels in works relating to Rhode Island and to the Dorr rebellion in particular. He inherited a large collection of documents on the latter subject from the late Thomas A. Jenckes, who had contemplated writing a history of this important episode in our political development. Mr. Rider, it appears, is engaged upon an index of the newspapers published in Providence from 1820 to the present time, and has brought it down to 1852. Mr. Rogers does not vaunt his own library, but he allows us to see that it is admirable for something else besides economical stowage. Bibliography is perhaps its most salient feature. He owns the unpublished MS. journal of Lieut. Hadden, one of Gen. Burgoyne's aids in his American campaign, and is about to print it in the series of "Rhode Island Historical Tracts" now being published by Mr. Rider.

An American cannot read a work of this kind without asking himself

what is to become of all these collections when their owners pass from the scene; and the habit of public spirit is so firmly grounded in us that we expect rather than hope that the public will finally fall heir to them. Mr. Carter's library alone has had the opportunity of being so bestowed. His death occurred, we believe, before the present struggling Public Library was founded in Providence. His collection was certainly not adapted for general circulation; most of it was and is too precious to be handled except by a select few; but it could readily have been kept by itself under restrictions, and it would have formed a magnificent nucleus of a library such as the city of Providence is bound to support and to make symmetrical. This may be its final destination; it now remains in the family. Mr. Rogers takes the liberty of giving a hint in one case. Of Mr. Cooke's volumes he says that the rapidity with which he has gathered them "has awakened much interest, and some speculation, as to how he will ultimately dispose of them"; and he cites Petrarch's example in offering his library to the Cathedral of St. Mark, in the hope that "the illustrious city of Venice will acquire other trusts of the same kind from the public."

Topographie der Stadt Rom, etc. [Topography of the City of Rome in Ancient Times]. By H. Jordan. Vol. i., part 1. With plates. (Berlin: Weidmannsche Buchhandlung; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1878.)—This work, characteristically German in its high grade of scholarship, familiarity with existing materials on the subject, and, we may add, in a scepticism occasionally excessive, is worthy of study as the only recent thorough, comprehensive German work in its own sphere. The book was originally meant to be a remodelled edition of Becker's work, but has actually taken a widely different shape. The part which has now appeared is the first division of the first volume; the second was published seven years ago, but in the meanwhile the author issued his valuable edition of the ancient "Capitoline" plan of Rome with the support of the Berlin Academy ("Forma urbis Romæ regionum xiv," 1874, with 33 colored plates). Jordan speaks with great respect of De Rossi and Lanciani, but descends on Parker's "Archæology of Rome" (still in course of publication) very severely, with the words "a dilettante book, highly inconvenient in shape, utterly without any scientific basis, which could be left unmentioned if it did not contain some illustrations that could not be obtained, or only with difficulty, elsewhere." While the reader of this book may be disappointed at being forced to realize how surprisingly little we know of the ancient city, how very imperfect most of the existing topographical material is, and what a mass of useless polemics and obsolete or demonstrably false theories has to be removed, leaving but a small heap of wheat by a mountain of chaff, he will be repaid by the residuum of indubitable, strictly tested fact, by the many important results of the excavations between 1870 and 1876, and by a number of new and very interesting details, which lend freshness to our ideas of the life of ancient Rome. Those who have had an opportunity of visiting the Eternal City will be gratified to find that in many respects it deserves that title by having altered less than is generally supposed. The mean temperature, Jordan believes, has not materially altered; the malaria seems to have been a regularly recurring danger then as now; the inundations of the Tiber followed very much the same course; the most important thoroughfares in and about the ancient city are, broadly speaking, still closely followed

by modern streets, guided by the general character of the ground; ancient sewers, ancient aqueducts still in part do their duty; the Rome of the Empire, like the Rome of the Popes, had its gardens on the Pincian, its fountains at innumerable street-corners; all this, not to speak of the better-known differences. The great fires of ancient days, even that under Nero, effected, the author thinks, changes far less important than hitherto assumed. Though an imperial city—the most magnificent the world has ever seen—even the great streets had no names posted up; the side-streets had often no names at all; the houses no numbers. If you asked your way, it was told you by laboriously counting so and so many side-streets, then so and so many pillars in a long row of precisely similar ones separating one shop from another. The names of the streets are not without interest: two only within the older walls were "ways," the Sacred Way and the New Way; other names of the Republican Period are: "Among the Potters," "Among the Seyth-makers," "Garlic Street," "Money-changers' Street," "Shoemakers' Street," "Glaziers' Street," etc. The name of the Accursed Street is familiar. Many preserve the family names of magistrates, or are called after neighboring temples or gates, or after neighboring public monuments, statues, pictures, or signs—e.g., the streets "of Shepherds' Cross-road, the Wooden Pillar, the Dolphin, the Restored Mile-stone, the Spouting Fountain-Mask, the Head of Africa." We just instance these matters, rather than other things in the book, because they bring modern and ancient life more closely together, and the essential interest of the study of antiquities lies in this very tracing back of our common human nature, even in details. We hope we shall not be kept long waiting for the continuation of this excellent work.

Popular Astronomy. By Simon Newcomb, LL.D., Professor U. S. Naval Observatory. (New York: Harper & Bros.)—The public naturally like to hear what a man who has recently distinguished himself has to tell them about his specialty; and astronomers will be glad to have a collection of Professor Newcomb's highly competent opinions in regard to various questions of astronomy. This book will not, however, fascinate the general reader. The style in which it is written suggests that it may have been first composed for a school text-book, and afterwards worked over for popular reading. In Part I. an attempt is made to teach the first elements of astronomy in their historical development; a very good idea, well worthy of a fuller working out. Part II. is entitled "Practical Astronomy," not certainly because it teaches anything practically, but because it supplies information concerning telescopes and the work which is done with them. Part III. describes the solar system, and Part IV. the stellar universe.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
Abbott (Rev. E. A.), How to Parse.....	(Roberts Bros.) \$1 00
Adams (C. F., Jr.), Railroads: their Origin and Problems.....	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)
Bryne (J.), Short Studies of Great Lawyers.....	(Albany Law Journal)
Bryant (W. C.) and Gay (S. H.), Popular History of the United States, Vol. II.....	(Charles Scribner's Sons)
Destiny of Russia.....	(Thomas Wilson)
Genes of American Scenery: White Mountains.....	(Harroun & Bier tadt)
Grohman (W. A. B.), Gadding with a Primitive People.....	(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 00
Grove (J.), Dictionary of Music and Musicians, Part 3, swd.....	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 25
Guerrier (G. P.), Pipes of Corn: Poetry, swd.....	(W. B. Clarke)
Habberton (J.), The Crew of the Sam Weller, swd.....	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 40
Kirkman (M. M.), Railway Service: Trains and Stations.....	(Railroad Gazette)
Lamb (C.), Essays of Elia, swd.....	(D. Appleton & Co.) 30
Le Fanu (J. S.), Birds of Passage: a Tale, swd.....	(D. Appleton & Co.) 25
Longworth (N.), Sophocles's Electra Translated in Verse.....	(Robt. Clarke & Co.)
McPherson (E.), Hand-book of Politics for 1878.....	(Solomons & Chapman) 2 00

WILL BE READY ON SATURDAY.

A NEW EDITION OF

MRS. BRASSEY'S

Around the World in the
Yacht "Sunbeam."

8vo, with Chart, \$3 50.

With an Index added by the American publishers. This new American edition is the only edition containing an Index. The Index will be furnished without charge to any one applying for it.

JUST PUBLISHED.

LEISURE-HOUR SERIES.

16mo, \$1 per vol.

No. 98. Gaddings with a Primitive
People.

By W. A. Baillie Grohman. A remarkably entertaining volume of out-of-the-way life and adventure, which the London *Saturday Review* characterized as "singularly readable," the *Spectator*

as "a book such as the public seldom has the opportunity of reading," and the *Westminster Review* as "always bright and picturesque, and eminently readable."

No. 97. *PLAY-DAY POEMS.* Collected and Edited by Rossiter Johnson. This volume contains the best of the Humorous Poetry published since Parton's collection in 1845, and also many of the old favorites.

HENRY HOLT & CO., NEW YORK.

Continued from page iii.

OHIO, Cleveland.

BROOKS SCHOOL—Classical and English.

Twenty-one teachers. The purpose of this School is twofold—to prepare boys in the most thorough manner for the best American colleges, and with equal thoroughness for the leading Scientific Schools. It sends nearly twenty boys this year to Harvard and Yale, to the Columbia School of Mines, and the Sheffield Scientific School. The Autumn term begins Wednesday, Sept. 11. The new Catalogue (120 pp.), containing a Table of the Requirements for Admission to Fifteen Representative Colleges (copyrighted)—of great value to a student selecting his course—will be sent upon the receipt of four cents in stamps. Address JOHN S. WHITE, Head-Master

BROOKS SCHOOL for Young Ladies.—A separate department of the above-named School prepares for the best colleges for women. A few pupils are taken into the family of the Lady Principal. For Catalogue address as above.

OHIO, Marietta.

MARIETTA COLLEGE—Established in 1835, and conducted on the model of the best Eastern Colleges. It has good cabinets and apparatus, and large libraries. A course of study without Greek is provided. Promising students are aided. A thorough Preparatory School in operation. The next term begins September 5.

L. W. ANDREWS, President.

PENNSYLVANIA, Bethlehem.

LEHIGH UNIVERSITY—Tuition Free.—Civil, Mechanical, and Mining Engineering; Chemistry and Metallurgy; full Classical instruction; French and German; English Literature; International and Constitutional Law; Psychology and Christian Evidences.

For Registers address

The Rev. JOHN M. LEAVITT, D. D., President.

PENNSYLVANIA, Chester.

PENNSYLVANIA MILITARY ACADEMY.

Opens September 11.

Location healthful; grounds ample; buildings commodious; thorough instruction in Civil Engineering, the Classics, and English; careful supervision of cadets. For Circular apply to

Col. THEO. HYATT, President.

PENNSYLVANIA, Germantown, West Chelton Avenue, below Wayne Street.

MISS MARY E. STEVENS'S, formerly Miss Mary E. Aertsen and Miss Mary E. Stevens's, School for Young Ladies, will reopen Sept. 19, 1878. Scholars prepared for the Harvard Examinations for Women.

